

ISSN 2029-4581. Online ISSN 2345-0037. ORGANIZATIONS AND MARKETS IN EMERGING ECONOMIES, 2019, VOL. 10, No. 1(19). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15388/omee.2019.10.00006>

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS AT INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: PATTERNS, INFLUENCES, AND APPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATION

Udin Udin*

ORCHID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5491-9085>

Diponegoro University, Business and Economic Faculty, Semarang, Indonesia

Sri Handayani

ORCHID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7902-4368>

Diponegoro University, Business and Economic Faculty, Semarang, Indonesia

Ahyar Yuniawan

Diponegoro University, Business and Economic Faculty, Semarang, Indonesia

Edy Rahardja

Diponegoro University, Business and Economic Faculty, Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract. *The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationships among leadership styles, communication skills, and employee satisfaction and investigate the potential of women in positions of leadership to support the practice of equal employment opportunities in organizations. Data were collected from 200 self-administered surveys using questionnaires administered to employees at three private Islamic universities in Semarang, Indonesia. Regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses. The results show that leadership styles and communication skills have a significant effect on employee satisfaction. However, on the basis of employee perceptions, this study reveals no significant difference in leadership styles and communication skills between male and female leaders.*

Keywords: *leadership styles, communication skills, employee satisfaction, equal employment opportunity*

* Corresponding author: Business and Economic Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia; E-mail address: udin_labuan@yahoo.com

Introduction

The growing operations of companies today, the geographic coverage of which extend not only regionally but also nationally and even globally, cause relationships among employees, leaders, and owners to change (Lan & Hung, 2018). In the past, employees were involved from project planning to completion. However, with the increase in specialized jobs, each employee influences only a small part of the entire production process, which leads to boredom, a feeling of loss of independence, and the loss of pride in one's work. Opportunities for progress also become more limited when employees are under-educated. Hence, the interaction between employees and top managers, and even owners, is increasingly becoming limited. Furthermore, owners may not easily supervise every stage of activity occurring in several existing departments because of organizational development, causing the distance between employees and management and owners to broaden. Again, competition in the business world and environmental changes demand that companies remain adaptable; hence, many changes in organizations occur that are not always followed or accepted by employees (Škudienė, Augutytė-Kvedaravičienė, Demeško, & Suchockis, 2018). Therefore, the function of integration becomes important. Integration aims to synchronize employee desires with organizational goals so that they are able and willing to work together in effectively achieving company goals.

Carrying out the integration function within an organization is the important role of a leader as the representative of the organization. A boss/manager must have the ability, through providing direction and exercising control, to influence their employees' attitudes and provide encouragement in achieving the organization's goals. For this role to run optimally, a leader's communication skills are an important asset (Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015; Yu & Ko, 2017). Leadership is increasingly significant, both in academia and corporate practice. Studies on the topic are widely conducted; however, it is still rare to understand leadership and its link to communication skills (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Neufeld, Wan, & Fang, 2010; Park, Lee, Lee, & Park, 2015).

There are many expert opinions regarding the importance of communication in leadership. According to Behrendt, Matz, and Göritz (2017), leadership is a behavior that is exhibited through communication, which clarifies perceptions of a leader's charisma. This is acknowledged by Hall and Lord (1995), saying that the message that a leader conveys includes affective and cognitive strategies. When the leader effectively communicates their vision, they are more likely to gain the employees' trust, which eventually influences communication satisfaction between leaders and followers (Madlock, 2008).

The need for leaders who are competent in communication is increasingly being considered in today's business studies. Because change in the current working environment is dominated by young employees with higher education and intelligence in the

use of high-tech equipment, the workplace must be balanced with negotiating leaders (Madlock, 2008). Leaders can persuade employees to follow their vision by involving employee interests and communicating effectively. Similarly, Shaw (2005) stated that in order to be perceived as competent communicators, leaders must share and respond to information on time; pay attention to others' viewpoints; communicate clearly and concisely to all levels of organizations; and use existing communication channels and various communicative resources, such as language, gestures, and sounds. Communication skills also play an important role in influencing attitudes, such as employee satisfaction, not only in terms of communication with leaders but also in terms of satisfaction with their jobs.

Effective leadership should not only encompass how well a leader's organizational unit succeeds in accomplishing goals but also the process of leadership itself and even how it affects employee perceptions of leaders and their styles. Employees perceive their leaders' behavior on the basis of two main categories: one related to the purpose of the tasks and the other related to interpersonal relationships. Concerning the opinion that leaders run tasks and relationship-oriented behavior (Madlock, 2008), Castaneda and Nahavandi (1991) stated that employees are most satisfied when they perceive their direct leaders as running both tasks and relationships.

It is important to study how leaders' characteristics relate to motivational factors and optimize organizational leadership effectiveness. The old paradigm emphasized the strong need for leader achievement as the key to success (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013; Shamir, 2018). Currently, it is imperative for achievements to be supported by healthy relationships. Furthermore, charismatic leaders have a tremendous impact on employees if they are also communicative (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 2018).

The increasing need for an effective leader who embodies the characteristics mentioned above eventually encourages the practice of equal opportunity employment within organizations. There is no gender discrimination regarding who has a better chance to play a leadership role in an organization. In general, women tend to have higher relationship and interpersonal skills, thereby becoming more communicative than men. Halpern (1998), a professor in psychology, reveals that women have natural communicative advantages. Other researchers (Abrami et al., 2008; Case, 2005; Willingham, 2008) support Halpern's opinion, stating that women have better language skills than men do. Women in a leadership role use language skills to communicate with supporters, carefully choosing the words that they utter. Their words make a powerful weapon for expressing opinions, motivating, and encouraging employees. They realize that appropriate words have great power to touch others. Nevertheless, some studies show no difference in communication competence between male and female managers (Algren & Eichhorn, 2007).

Judging from leadership styles, female leaders exhibit task-oriented management without ignoring good relationships with their employees as stated by the conclusion

drawn from the article of Psychological Bulletin Vol. 129 No. 3 reviewed in *Sinar Harapan* Daily, concerning the advantages of female leaders. Numerous studies show that men and women respond differently to aspects of social relationships (Eagly, 2007; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). When compared with men, women are more prominent in the communal dimension, including personal-oriented relationships and care for the well-being of others (Eagly, 2009; Girdauskiene & Eyvazzade, 2015; Spence & Buckner, 2000). Nevertheless, Eagly's study showed no gender differences in terms of assertive behavior such as ambition, domination, and competition (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). However, the facts show many remaining differentiating positions for the genders. Women often occupy a lower position than their male counterparts and do not receive equal opportunities in career development (Hastuti, 2004). Patel's research findings dealing with women's leadership at the American College of Radiology (2001 to 2015) indicate insignificant female roles in leadership. Women accounted for almost 50% of medical school enrollment but amounted to only 22% of radiology practitioners, and top management positions were still dominated by men (Patel et al., 2017). Institutional culture in organizations induces the *glass ceiling* that working women face, inhibiting their accession to roles in senior positions and leadership (Halim & Razak, 2014).

1. Literature Review and Hypotheses Formulation

1.1 Leadership Style

Most researchers evaluate leadership effectiveness on the basis of the consequences of leaders' actions toward followers among other components within the organization. The most widely used measurement is the extent to which organizational leaders succeed in accomplishing tasks that achieve goals, both objectively and subjectively. Selecting appropriate criteria depends upon the purposes and the values of the person conducting the evaluation, and everyone has different values (Yukl, 2010).

Michigan Leadership Study (1967) proposed a set of effective leadership behaviors differing from previous studies. Employees view their supervisors' behavior mainly on the basis of two categories: one relating to task purposes and the other relating to interpersonal relationships.

1. Task-oriented behavior.

Effective managers use their time and efforts to concentrate on task or job-oriented functions that are different than those of their employees, such as planning and coordinating employee activities and helping employees set high, yet realistic, performance goals.

2. Relationship-oriented behavior.

Effective managers do not sacrifice attention to human relationships for task-oriented behavior. Leader behaviors supporting this idea include showing trust and cred-

ibility; acting friendly and caring; seeking to understand employees' issues; showing appreciation of the employees' ideas; and giving recognition to their contributions and achievements.

In large organizations, manager effectiveness depends on the level of influence on leaders, colleagues, and employees, which means that influence is the essence of leadership (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010). Various leadership functions are run by different people who influence what groups do, how they do it, and how group members relate to each other. This interactive process, of course, involves the influence of many people. The issue is about who utilizes influence, the kind of influence, and the outcomes that prevail. Conflicting points of view argue that the definition of leadership is limited by the use of influence that results in high commitment from employees regardless of discontent or unwillingness to obey. Another contradictory view holds that by using control over rewards and punishments as a tool to manipulate or force followers one is not really "leading" and that this is unethical because they are abusing power. Thus, the first view informs some of the influencing processes that are important to understand as to why a manager is ineffective in certain situations. Similar influences deliver different results, depending on the nature of the situation, and the same leadership outcomes might be achieved by different influencing methods (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Rowe & Guerrero, 2012; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004).

1.2 Communication

Good communication in an organization has various important roles. First, communication is a key for coordinating activities within the organization. Without good communication, people do not know their role, and the organization is unable to function effectively. Second, communication plays a role in sharing information, in particular putting forth facts, data, instructions, and directions between units within an organization. Third, communication is essential for message receivers to develop friendships and build trust and acceptance. In this case, leadership roles deal with building social relationships within the organization. What people say and how they say it has an impact on others. Therefore, to create a pleasant interpersonal atmosphere in the workplace, organization members must pay attention to communication factors. Eventually, the most important role for a leader is the role of communication in decision making.

Each individual has a different communication style, which is not only influenced by their personal communication style but also by gender and cross-cultural differences. It is important to understand that every style can be learned and applied. Each style has its strengths and weaknesses, and there is no single style that works better than the others. In general, individuals tend to use one particular style. Effective communication begins by recognizing one's own communication style and then others' styles. When someone meets and interacts with another, it is best to try to understand and then, as much as possible, adjust to the other person's style.

Men and women often misconstrue one another because they use different communication techniques. Their differences cause them to address problems differently. Men tend to be good speakers, emphasizing and strengthening their status through speaking, while women focus on creating positive social relationships, tending to listen to others, and being more emotionally available. It is wise for a manager or leader to appreciate these differences. A person who understands that everyone has a different way of conveying meaning through speech is likely to gain favor with employees and coworkers with differing communication styles.

Communication within groups or organizations has four main functions (Halim & Razak, 2014), namely:

1. **Control.** Through communication, a leader can determine whether an employee is doing the job according to the organizations' needs, and if a job-related problem occurs.
2. **Motivation.** Communication becomes a motivator when an employee receives an explanation of what role they should play, what achievement they have accomplished, and what can be done to improve it.
3. **Emotional expression.** For some employees, working in groups is a major source of social interaction. Communication provides freedom to express emotions and fulfills social needs.
4. **Information.** Each member of an organization needs information to identify and evaluate options for the decision-making process. With competitive pressures facing organizations today, strategy formulation, decision making, motivation, team building, and negotiation require leadership abilities in effective communication.

1.3 Communication Skills

Communication is defined as a process by which a sender conveys various types of information to a receiver. Anyone can be a communicator or run a communication process. However, the quality of communication varies depending on how well a communicator effectively conveys a message. Not only must a message be delivered, accepted, and understood by the recipient, but it must also effectively achieve the communication purposes, punctual and situational, and on target.

Competent communicators are identified by how well the message reaches its goal, and if it is done properly. From the inside of the concerned individual, their communication skills are constructs of knowledge, motivation, skills, behavior, and effectiveness (Berman & Hellweg, 1989). Communicative individuals have the abilities to use communicative resources, such as gestures, language, and voice, effectively for achieving social goals (Stohl, 1984). Kuntze, van der Molen, and Born (2016) stated that communication skill is an individual's ability to demonstrate knowledge about appropriate communication behavior in certain situations. This definition is reaffirmed by McCros-

key (1982), who stated that pointing out the goal is proper communicative behavior and that competent communicators are effective in achieving their goals and maximizing their accomplishment through communication.

1.4 Motivating Language

Motivating Language Theory (ML) predicts that the indented way a leader speaks can significantly improve employees' attitudes and numerous outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, and innovation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006; Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1995). Initially, this theory was conceptualized by Sullivan (1988) to encourage employee motivation, which then formed the employees' speaking behavior encouraging organizational goals. According to Sullivan, there are three types of speech, namely:

1. *Direction-giving language* occurs when the leader explains goals to their employees alleviating organizational uncertainty. For example, a manager uses direction-giving language when helping employees prioritize the tasks of each project in various assignments.
2. *Empathetic language* is when a leader speaks to their employees with compassionate understanding. Managers use this empathetic language when they offer enthusiasm or encouragement.
3. *Meaning-making language* occurs when a leader conveys the rules of a particular organizational culture to their employees. For example, managers use meaning-making language when they give advice to their employees in order to encourage *buy-in* on a project. Cooke and Rousseau (1988) observed that the meaning-making language is often delivered indirectly in the form of a story or the organization's history.

1.5 Barriers to Female Leadership

Obstacles to female leadership are related to two issues, namely:

1. Objective conditions or institutionalized mistreatment of women, for example, receiving a lower salary than men, not getting a chance to do a particular type of job or work for a certain organization, and being forced into a contract bond to not get married for a certain amount of time.
2. Subjective conditions or stereotyped assumptions about women, for example, the assumption that women are weaker than men, skilled in the kitchen but bad at driving, or the assumption that women are soft and warm, but lacking power, slow and unintelligent.

Objective conditions appear to gain support through discriminative laws, practices and traditions toward female workers. If this happens, it becomes an external obstacle for women's ability to pursue a leadership role. Women are not given the opportunity to perform certain tasks, nor encouraged to achieve higher job positions, and – compared to men – rarely receive training opportunities that actually support their career development.

In contrast to the objective conditions above, subjective conditions are the attitudes based on misinformation about women, and acceptance of unequal opportunities for women, promoting an internal barrier for women's leadership. Both internal and external barriers must be simultaneously eliminated, as one constraint cannot be eliminated without eliminating other barriers as well.

1.6 Hypothesis Formulation

As the literature review above suggests, leadership in an organization requires a figure-head capable of directing, motivating, mobilizing human resources, and communicating their visions effectively, so that employees experience high levels of satisfaction. As Pavitt remarked, when leaders effectively communicate their visions they are more likely to gain employees' trust, which eventually affects communication satisfaction between leaders and followers (Madlock, 2008).

Communication skills lead to an individual's ability to demonstrate competence, which not only includes communicating the message verbally, but also the ability to listen to others' messages and negotiate accordingly. Leaders need to communicate effectively by involving the followers' interests, and persuading employees to follow their visions. Furthermore, proficient communicators must use various communicative resources such as language, gestures, and sounds (Stohl, 1984). Leaders must share and respond to information on time, listen to others' points of view, and communicate concisely and clearly to the entire organization to gain a reputation as a competent communicator.

A study conducted by Berman and Hellweg (1989) found that leaders' communication skills as perceived by employees were directly related to the employees' satisfaction with their bosses. Another study by Myers and Kassing (1998) found a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of their leader's communication skills and the level of the employees' organizational identification. Additionally, a study conducted by Sharbrough, Simmons, and Cantrill (2006), who examined the effect of motivational language on numerous outcomes, also showed similar findings. Based on those studies, there is in fact a positive relationship between the use of leaders' motivational language and employees' perceptions of effectiveness and communication skills, job satisfaction, and overall communication.

Previous studies show that interpersonal interactions involving information exchange affecting colleagues and interactions between employees and managers directly result in significant impact on working attitudes, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and *burnout* (Murphy & Sashi, 2018; Park, Lee, Lee, & Truex, 2012; Postmes, Tanis, & De Wit, 2001; Vermeir et al., 2018). Therefore, in general, it was concluded that employees possessing more positive communicative relationships also experienced more positive outcomes. The hypotheses are formulated as follows:

H1a: Leaders' communication skills have a positive effect on employees' communication satisfaction.

H1b: Leaders' communication skills have a positive effect on employees' job satisfaction.

Leadership is described as an ability to direct followers toward common goals (Bryman, 1992), or as a form of influence (Madlock, 2008). Meanwhile, Pfeffer and Salancik (1975) argued that leaders run tasks and relationship-oriented behaviors. Based on their findings, Castaneda and Nahavandi (1991) argued that employees who perceive their direct leaders' behavior as relationships-oriented express high job satisfaction. This is certainly in agreement with the findings of previous research claiming that leadership functions through communication including the components of tasks (content) and relationships (affective).

Literature on leadership and numerous measurements of leadership behavior reflect the fact that effective communication is broadly associated with leadership effectiveness (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2018; Yu & Ko, 2017). Likewise, Locke (1999) argues that effective personal communication skills enable leaders to create and disseminate their visions to followers. The conceptualization of communication satisfaction is presented by Crino and White (1981), who argued that organizational communication satisfaction includes individual satisfaction regarding various aspects of communication within an organization. Similarly, Putti, Aryee, and Phua (1990) indicated in their study that the communication satisfaction of organization members is related with the amount of information available to them. Effective communication between leaders and followers creates a positive impression and increases perceptions about a leader's performance (Yu & Ko, 2017). Moreover, even though communication provides employees with information clarifying job duties and contributing to communication satisfaction, Anderson and Martin (1995) found that employees interact and communicate with colleagues and managers to satisfy interpersonal needs. Hence, employees' communication satisfaction includes the dimensions of relationships and tasks. Thus, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H2a: Task-oriented leadership style has a positive effect on employees' communication satisfaction.

H2b: Task-oriented leadership style has a positive effect on employees' job satisfaction.

H3a: Relationship-oriented leadership style has a positive effect on employees' communication satisfaction.

H3b: Relationship-oriented leadership style has a positive effect on employees' job satisfaction.

Although more than half of Indonesia's population are women, their conditions of underdevelopment illustrate injustice and inequality between men and women in In-

Indonesia (Seomartoyo, 2002). Despite the technical skills required, the opportunity for female employees to occupy managerial positions, or in other words to become a leader in an organizational unit, is relatively lower than male employees. This study focuses on the subjective and objective obstacles of an organization, regardless of cultural and social problems.

Female leaders are generally support-oriented. Studies reveal that female leaders empower supporters by allowing them to express opinions and provide followers with inputs. Women also have an advantage in communication skills, according to some other researchers who claim that women have better language skills than men. As leaders, women use their language skills to communicate with employees. They collaborate closely with various parties to achieve the vision and mission which are set forth, deriving from the awareness that goals are more easily achieved with the support from many parties. For this reason, women are more likely to work together in teams to carry out their leadership tasks, rather than do things alone. This is supported by female leaders' willingness and ability to communicate with employees in two directions, and to pay attention to employee needs, aspirations, inputs, and well-being. Stanford, Oates, and Flores (1995) characterized female leaders as those who have a high level of involvement with employees. Women control effective communication through motivation and inspiration based on mutual respect and trust with their employees. Compared to men, women have higher interpersonal skills driven by their beliefs that people perform best when they feel themselves and work well. Then, they create situations to reinforce those positive feelings (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010). Similarly, Evans (2014) argued that women tend to be more effective in terms of interpersonal skills, empathy, emotion, and relationship handling. Such female characters support their abilities to communicate with different approaches than men.

Women's interpersonal skills enable them to use transformational leadership styles. As Alimo-Metcalfe (2010) pointed out, women use an interactive leadership style by encouraging participation, sharing power and information, and increasing self-esteem in others. Similarly, Eagly (2007) stated that a feminine leadership model is built on collaboration, cooperation, low control, and problem solving based on intuition and rationality. These traits are all closely related to transformational leadership. In contrast, the findings of a survey conducted by Management Research Group and Hagberg Consulting Group concluded that the assumption women are more democratic than men is a myth (Evans, 2014). In fact, women tend to be more task and job-oriented, while men spend more time on business analysis and strategic planning. Women are also highly regarded as good listeners, motivators, and high performers, as well as for their communication skills. Furthermore, they tend to be more sensitive and empathetic to the needs of their partners.

2. Research Methods

2.1 Type of Research

This study was conducted to examine leadership styles, communication skills, and satisfaction related to the job and on-the-job communication. The study tests the hypotheses based on previous studies and existing theories, and is categorized as explanatory research, intended to give an explanation about the issue. In other words, this study emphasizes the relationship between variables for existing hypotheses that contained descriptions, but it was more focused on the relationship between the actual variables than the existing hypotheses.

2.2 Population and Sample

The population in this study were all employees at three (3) private universities located in the city of Semarang, Indonesia who work at *Universitas Islam Sultan Agung*, *Universitas Wahid Hasyim*, and *Universitas Muhammadiyah Semarang*. Based on numerous considerations, it did not involve employees in government institutions: communication channels in public sector organizations are centralistic, and information sources are dominated by leaders, whereas managers act as the first people to give information, and employees are ordered to carry it out. Command and accountability are types of communication standing out in this type of organization. Hence, decision making is primarily the leaders' prerogatives, contrasting the practice of most private companies where individuals need recognition, and require respect for status supported by wide opportunities for downward and upward communication. Thus, communication becomes more open, and suggestions, criticism, initiatives, and information come from both leaders and employees. The implication of the study was a demand to convey messages both orally and written through various forms of communication media, while retaining the capability and willingness to listen well and receive the message. Associated with that which was previously described, the subjects in this study are limited to employees in private sectors. The conducted study is in line with the definition of communication skills used previously, in which a leader was said to be competent of their role not only as a sender but also as a receiver.

The sample was based on purposive sampling technique, with criteria including male or female employees whose relationship duration with their leaders was at least one year. The leaders discussed here are faculty leaders or deans. The determination of the number of samples was based on Roscoe's idea that the represented sample size should be greater than 30 and less than 500 in most studies (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This study uses 200 respondents based on Roscoe's statement, and considering the need for respondents with both male and female leaders to answer this study's purposes.

2.3 Data Collection

Primary data is required in this study. The primary data used was obtained from respondents covering characteristics of said respondent (gender, length of relationship with employees), characteristics of the assessed leaders (gender, position), task and relationship-oriented leadership styles, leaders' communication skills, communication satisfaction, and respondents' job satisfaction as employees.

A survey method was used to collect the data in this research using questionnaires as the main data collection tool. Questionnaires were conducted personally so the content of the questionnaires were addressed immediately if needed.

2.4 Measurement

Communication Skills. This variable was measured using 12 components of statements from the Communicator Competence Questionnaire developed by Monge, Backman, Dillard, and Eisenburg (Berman & Hellweg, 1989). The components showed that to be perceived as a competent communicator, leaders must share and respond to information on time, actively listen to others' opinions or views, communicate clearly and concisely, and utilize different channels of communication. Communication skills were measured by employees using a Likert's 5-point scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Job Satisfaction. Measured with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, and England (1967), which includes the dimensions of salary satisfaction, supervisors, colleagues, promotion, and the job itself on a 5-point measurement scale of highly dissatisfied to very satisfied.

Communication Satisfaction. Measured by Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory (ICSI), which consists of 19 statements with a Likert 7-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The ICSI was developed by Hecht (1978), and later modified with the addition of the opening sentence ("When communicating with my boss, I feel") to each statement.

Leadership Style. Measured by the Leadership Style Questionnaire developed by Northouse (2018), and consisting of 20 statement items. The questionnaires measured task and relationship-oriented leadership styles that were combined to present a general leadership profile. The employees were asked to respond to their leaders' leadership styles using a Likert 5-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

3. Findings

Personal distribution and retrieval of the questionnaires to respondents was enacted to ensure that any obscurity of the question items was immediately addressed. Questionnaires were distributed to 275 respondents, yet not all could be drawn by surveyors, and among the returned questionnaires only 200 were further processed.

3.1 Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the extent to which a test can measure what was intended. The test in this study was done using factor analysis aiming to ensure that each question item was classified as a predetermined variable. The question items used in the following analysis were those items which had factor loading of more than 0.4, indicating the degree of conformity between the variables and their factors.

TABLE 1: Summary of Validity Test

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
CK1	0.560			
CK2	0.606			
CK3	0.658			
CK4	0.533			
CK5	0.526			
CK6	0.495			
CK7	0.601			
CK8	0.653			
CK9	0.676			
CK10	0.532			
CK11	0.764			
CK12	0.765			
KJ1		0.813		
KJ2		0.835		
KJ3		0.802		
KJ4		0.652		
KJ5		0.684		
KJ6		0.677		
KJ7		0.499		
KJ8		0.653		
KJ9		0.610		
KJ10		0.634		
KJ11		0.656		
KJ12		0.749		
KJ13		0.762		
KJ14		0.842		
KJ15		0.852		
KJ16		0.852		
KJ17		0.690		
KJ18		0.593		
KJ19		0.712		
KJ20		0.615		
PK1			0.757	
PK2			0.573	

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
PK3			0.628	
PK4			0.775	
PK5			0.596	
PK6			0.884	
PK7			0.747	
PK8			0.821	
PK9			0.685	
PK10			0.733	
PK11			0.796	
PK12			0.769	
PK13			0.778	
PK14			0.822	
PK15			0.795	
PK16			0.799	
PK17			0.805	
PK18			0.632	
PK19			0.700	
GKT1				0.603
GKT2				0.617
GKT3				0.578
GKT4				0.672
GKT5				0.556
GKT6				0.763
GKT7				0.734
GKT8				0.693
GKH1				
GKH2				
GKH3				
GKH4				
GKH5				
GKH6				
GKH7				
GKH8				
GKH9				
GKH10				
GKH11				
GKH12				

Table 1 shows that question items used in this study were valid, because the loading factor was greater than 0.4 and classified in several variables.

This study uses Cronbach's alpha method, one of the most commonly used methods in which coefficients are most useful for multi item interval scales. Score values between 0.8 - 1 are categorized as good reliability, alpha values 0.6 - 0.79 are categorized as acceptable reliability, and alpha values less than 0.6 are categorized as poor reliability (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Table 2 is a summary of reliability test results.

TABLE 2: Summary of Validity Test

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Category
Communication Skills	0.877	Good
Job Satisfaction	0.699	Acceptable
Communicating Satisfaction	0.883	Good
Task-Oriented Leadership Style	0.866	Good
Relationship-Oriented Leadership Style	0.941	Good

In this study, the hypotheses testing were done with a simple regression test and an Independent Samples t-test. Simple regression analysis tested whether there was a correlation between leaders' communication skills and employees' communicating satisfaction, and whether the communication skills also influenced the employees' job satisfaction. It also tested how task and relationship-oriented leaderships affected employees' communication and job satisfaction. An Independent Samples t-test was conducted to examine the differences in communication skills and leadership styles of male and female leaders based on employees' perceptions. A summary of the overall findings of the analysis are represented in Table 3 through Table 6.

TABLE 3: The Result of Regression Analysis to Test Hypothesis 1

Variables	Beta	Sig.	Adj R ²	F
CK → PK	0.766	0.000*	0.584	280.546* (p=0.000)
CK → KJ	0.570	0.000*	0.321	95.245* (p=0.000)

Note: CK= Communication Skills, PK= Communication Satisfaction, KJ= Job Satisfaction;

* Significant on $p < 0.05$

TABLE 4: The Result of Regression Analysis to Test Hypothesis 2

Variables	Beta	Sig.	Adj R ²	F
GKT → PK	0.632	0.000*	0.396	131.397* (p=0.000)
GKT → KJ	0.376	0.000*	0.137	32.521* (p=0.000)

Note: GKT= Task-Oriented Leadership Style

* Significant on $p < 0.05$

TABLE 5: The Result of Regression Analysis to Test Hypothesis 3

Variables	Beta	Sig.	Adj R ²	F
GKH → PK	0.801	0.000*	0.639	353.888* (p=0.000)
GKH → KJ	0.594	0.000*	0.349	107.696* (p=0.000)

Note: * GKH= Relationship-Oriented Leadership Style

* Significant on $p < 0.05$

TABLE 6: The Result of Regression Analysis to Test Hypotheses 4 and 5

	T	Sig	Mean Difference
CK → sex	-0.091	0.927	-0.00679
GK → sex	-0.820	0.413	-0.05379

Note: sex= Leader's gender

* Significant on $p < 0.05$

4. Discussion

Hypothesis 1a testing using regression analysis showed that the leaders' communication ability had a positive and significant effect on the employees' communication satisfaction ($b = 0.766$; $p = 0.000$). Therefore, it proves that the hypothesis was supported by this study. It is understood the leaders' communication skills affected the employees' satisfaction of the communication with direct leaders, because leaders cannot separate from their roles as communicators. Both the companies and their employees benefited from the clarity that was enhanced through submission of instructions, information, duties and responsibilities. So, when a leader can be an effective conveyor of information, a good listener, and sensitive to the needs and aspirations of the employees under their command employees will be more satisfied with the communication levels required of the leader.

From the results of hypothesis testing, it proves that the leaders' communication skills had a positive and significant impact on the employees' job satisfaction ($b = 0.570$; $p = 0.000$). The communication skills significantly explained 32.1% variation in job satisfaction variables ($\text{Adj } R^2 = 0.321$; $F = 95.245$; $p = 0.000$). The leader's communication competence determined how capable they were of directing and giving encouragement in achieving company goals. It was run through directing and controlling mechanisms that were undoubtedly supported by the leaders' communication skills as it is known that a leader as manager is a representation of the company. So, how effectively managers perform the integration function determines the perception of their employees concerning the amount of organizational support that affects their job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2a stated that the managers' task-oriented leadership styles positively affected the employees' communication satisfaction. The test results using regression

analysis showed that the coefficient of determination was 0.396, meaning that 39.6% of variation in communication satisfaction variables are explained by the task leadership style, and their effect on communication satisfaction was significant ($b = 0.632$; $p = 0.000$). The support of this hypothesis further reinforces the findings of the previous studies as described in the above literature review.

From the testing result on Hypothesis 2b using regression analysis, it can be concluded that the task-oriented leadership style had a direct and significant effect on the employees' job satisfaction ($b = 0.376$; $p = 0.000$), and the leadership style could explain 13.7% variation in the dependent variable ($\text{Adj } R^2 = 0.137$; $F = 32.521$; $p = 0.000$). The support of this hypothesis reinforces Anderson and Martin's (1995) findings pointing out that the clarity of job duties contributes to the employees' satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction is significantly determined by the characteristics of a task-oriented leadership style that clearly sets and communicates performance standards, clarifies each employee's responsibility, and encourages qualified jobs.

The result of Hypothesis 3a testing with regression analysis showed that the relationship-oriented leadership style explained the variation of employees' communication satisfaction equal to 63.9% ($\text{Adj } R^2 = 0.639$; $F = 353.888$; $p = 0.000$), and proved to have a significant positive effect ($b = 0.801$; $p = 0.000$). The support of this hypothesis reinforces the findings of the previous studies (Anderson & Martin, 1995), stating that employees' communicative interaction with leaders who satisfied their interpersonal needs contributed to the employees' overall communication satisfaction.

The result of Hypothesis 3b testing showed that relationship-oriented leadership style explained significant variation in the job satisfaction variable ($\text{Adj } R^2 = 0.349$; $F = 107.696$; $p = 0.000$), and had positive and significant influence on the dependent variable ($b = 0.594$; $p = 0.000$). This was acceptable, considering the leaders' friendly attitudes, fair behavior, personal attention, and support of employee efforts, both individually and in teams, were not only important for job execution but also caused pleasure in work. It is not surprising that such a leadership style effectively improves employees' job satisfaction.

The results of testing Hypotheses 4 and 5 as shown in Table 6 infer that there is no difference in communication skills between male and female leaders. Similarly, male-to-female leadership styles showed no significant differences based on their employees' assessments. This was evident from the test results where the significance was 0.927 and 0.413. Moreover, the mean difference between male and female leaders was very small, less than 0.1 (mean difference = -0.00679 and -0.05379). The unsupported Hypotheses 4 and 5 related to the subjects who were employees in private companies. Human resource management policies in private companies were clearly different from government sectors. Policy on promotional positions, determination of compensation, bureaucracy, and formalities of interaction between leaders and employees were very different. Performance-based criteria made the basis of policy determination for private companies unlike government agencies, which tended to be formal, rigid, and sen-

ior-based prioritization. This caused employees who occupied the leader position in private companies to be considered in terms of their competence, including the ability to communicate and lead, regardless of whether they were male or female. Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) findings stated that men could learn about women's leadership styles and apply them effectively, yet the study shows an effective leadership style is not a gender specific domain, and both genders can learn from each other.

5. Conclusion

Both communication skills and/or task and relationship-oriented leadership styles play an important role in determining employees' working attitudes, especially their satisfaction with work, and communicative relationships with their direct leaders. Interestingly, there is no significant difference in communication skills and leadership styles between male and female leaders.

In this study, the authors have built a coherent framework for the relationship between leadership style and communication skills in the private Islamic universities sector. Although this relationship is not a new approach in human resource management field, its research in the private Islamic universities sector is still limited. Therefore, this study can make a huge contribution to the literature on leadership style and communication skills in the private Islamic universities sector in Indonesia.

Further studies related to communication and leadership need to explore and examine different settings in more depth. In order to assess the differences in communication and leadership capabilities between men and women, future studies should not be limited to only government or private companies. The number of respondents should be greater than 200 and come from both types of industries. In addition, this analysis should be supported by another data collection method beside surveys with questionnaires. Direct interviews with company management will also support a descriptive explanation on existing quantitative analysis.

References

- Abrami, P. C., Bernard, R. M., Borokhovski, E., Wade, A., Surkes, M. A., Tamim, R., & Zhang, D. (2008). Instructional interventions affecting critical thinking skills and dispositions: A stage 1 meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(4), 1102–1134.
- Algren, M., & Eichhorn, K. C. (2007). Cognitive communication competence within public relations practitioners: Examining gender differences between technicians and managers. *Public Relations Review*, 33(1), 77–83.
- Alimo-Metcalfe, B. (2010). An investigation of female and male constructs of leadership and empowerment. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 25(8), 640–648.
- Anderson, C. M., & Martin, M. M. (1995). The effects of communication motives, interaction involvement, and loneliness on satisfaction: A model of small groups. *Small Group Research*, 26(1), 118–137.
- Appelbaum, S. H., Audet, L., & Miller, J. C. (2003). Gender and leadership? Leadership and gen-

der? A journey through the landscape of theories. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(1), 43–51.

Behrendt, P., Matz, S., & Göritz, A. S. (2017). An integrative model of leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28(1), 229–244.

Berman, S. J., & Hellweg, S. A. (1989). Perceived supervisor communication competence and supervisor satisfaction as a function of quality circle participation. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 26(2), 103–122.

Boies, K., Fiset, J., & Gill, H. (2015). Communication and trust are key: Unlocking the relationship between leadership and team performance and creativity. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(6), 1080–1094.

Brower, H. H., Schoorman, F. D., & Tan, H. H. (2000). A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader–member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(2), 227–250.

Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. Sage Pubns.

Case, R. (2005). Moving critical thinking to the main stage. *Education Canada*, 45(2), 45–49.

Castaneda, M., & Nahavandi, A. (1991). Link of manager behavior to supervisor performance rating and subordinate satisfaction. *Group & Organization Studies*, 16(4), 357–366.

Choi, E. H., Kim, E.-K., & Kim, P. B. (2018). Effects of the Educational Leadership of Nursing Unit Managers on Team Effectiveness: Mediating Effects of Organizational Communication. *Asian Nursing Research*, 12(2), 99–105.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness*. Jossey-Bass.

Cooke, R. A., & Rousseau, D. M. (1988). Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture. *Group & Organization Studies*, 13(3), 245–273.

Crino, M. D., & White, M. C. (1981). Satisfaction in communication: An examination of the Downs-Hazen measure. *Psychological Reports*, 49(3), 831–838.

Den Hartog, D. N., & Verburg, R. M. (1997). Charisma and rhetoric: Communicative techniques of international business leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8(4), 355–391.

Dumdum, U. R., Lowe, K. B., & Avolio, B. J. (2013). A meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension. In B. J. Avolio, F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead 10th Anniversary Edition* (pp. 39–70). (Monographs in Leadership and Management, Volume 5). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31(1), 1–12.

Eagly, A. H. (2009). The his and hers of prosocial behavior: An examination of the social psychology of gender. *American Psychologist*, 64(8), 644–658.

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4), 569–591.

Evans, D. P. (2014). Aspiring to Leadership... A Woman's World? *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 148, 543–550.

Girdauskiene, L., & Eyvazzade, F. (2015). The profile of an effective female leadership in multicultural context. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 210, 11–20.

Glynn, M. A., & DeJordy, R. (2010). Leadership through an organization behavior lens. In N. Nohria & R. Khuran (Eds.), *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice* (pp. 119–157). Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Halim, N. A. A., & Razak, N. A. (2014). Communication strategies of women leaders in entrepreneurship. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 118, 21–28.

- Hall, R. J., & Lord, R. G. (1995). Multi-level information-processing explanations of followers' leadership perceptions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(3), 265–287.
- Halpern, D. F. (1998). Teaching critical thinking for transfer across domains: Disposition, skills, structure training, and metacognitive monitoring. *American Psychologist*, 53(4), 449–455.
- Hastuti, E. L. (2004). Hambatan sosial budaya dalam pengarusutamaan gender di Indonesia. *Pusat Penelitian dan Pengembangan Sosial Ekonomi Pertanian. Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan Pertanian. Departemen Pertanian. Bogor*.
- Hecht, M. L. (1978). The conceptualization and measurement of interpersonal communication satisfaction. *Human Communication Research*, 4(3), 253–264.
- Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4), 616–642.
- Kuntze, J., van der Molen, H. T., & Born, M. P. (2016). Mastery of communication skills. Does intelligence matter? *Health Professions Education*, 4(1), 9–15.
- Lan, M. T., & Hung, T. H. (2018). The Leadership Competency In Vietnam Public Administration. *Organizations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 9(1), 8–20.
- Locke, E. A. (1999). *The essence of leadership: The four keys to leading successfully*. Lexington Books.
- Madlock, P. E. (2008). The link between leadership style, communicator competence, and employee satisfaction. *The Journal of Business Communication* (1973), 45(1), 61–78.
- Mayfield, J., & Mayfield, M. (2006). The benefits of leader communication on part-time worker outcomes: A comparison between part-time and full-time employees using motivating language. *Journal of Business Strategies*, 23(2).
- Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M., & Kopf, J. (1995). Motivating language: Exploring theory with scale development. *The Journal of Business Communication* (1973), 32(4), 329–344.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1982). Communication competence and performance: A research and pedagogical perspective. *Communication Education*, 31(1), 1–7.
- Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Harding, F. D., Jacobs, T. O., & Fleishman, E. A. (2000). Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(1), 11–35.
- Murphy, M., & Sashi, C. (2018). Communication, interactivity, and satisfaction in B2B relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 68, 1–12.
- Myers, S. A., & Kassing, J. W. (1998). The relationship between perceived supervisory communication behaviors and subordinate organizational identification. *Communication Research Reports*, 15(1), 71–81.
- Neufeld, D. J., Wan, Z., & Fang, Y. (2010). Remote leadership, communication effectiveness and leader performance. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 19(3), 227–246.
- Northouse, P. G. (2018). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.
- Park, J., Lee, J., Lee, H., & Truex, D. (2012). Exploring the impact of communication effectiveness on service quality, trust and relationship commitment in IT services. *International Journal of Information Management*, 32(5), 459–468.
- Park, N. K., Lee, H., Lee, T., & Park, J. S. (2015). Correlations among emotional labor, servant leadership, and communication competence in hospital nurses. *Korean Journal of Occupational Health Nursing*, 24(2), 57–66.
- Patel, A. K., Fielding, J., Macura, K. J., Applegate, K. E., Zackula, R., & Arleo, E. K. (2017). Women's Leadership in the ACR, 2001–2015. *Journal of the American College of Radiology*, 14(6), 830–837.
- Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1975). Determinants of supervisory behavior: A role set analysis. *Human Relations*, 28(2), 139–154.

- Postmes, T., Tanis, M., & De Wit, B. (2001). Communication and commitment in organizations: A social identity approach. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 4(3), 227–246.
- Putti, J. M., Aryee, S., & Phua, J. (1990). Communication relationship satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Group & Organization Studies*, 15(1), 44–52.
- Rowe, W. G., & Guerrero, L. (2012). *Cases in leadership*. London: Sage.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Seomartoyo, S. (2002). *Pemberdayaan Perempuan di Indonesia dan Peluang Untuk Pemberdayaan Ekonomi Perempuan*. Paper presented at the Disampaikan oleh Menteri Pemberdayaan Perempuan pada The ACT Seminar and Summit. Japan-Indonesia: Dynamic Relationship for Regional Development.
- Shamir, B. (2018). Social distance and charisma: Theoretical notes and an exploratory study *Leadership Now: Reflections on the Legacy of Boas Shamir* (pp. 225–254). Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Shamir, B., Arthur, M. B., & House, R. J. (2018). The rhetoric of charismatic leadership: A theoretical extension, a case study, and implications for research *Leadership Now: Reflections on the Legacy of Boas Shamir* (pp. 31–49). Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Sharbrough, W. C., Simmons, S. A., & Cantrill, D. A. (2006). Motivating language in industry: Its impact on job satisfaction and perceived supervisor effectiveness. *The Journal of Business Communication* (1973), 43(4), 322–343.
- Shaw, K. (2005). Getting leaders involved in communication strategy. *Strategic Communication Management*, 9(6), 14–17.
- Škudienė, V., Augutytė-Kvedaravičienė, I., Demeško, N., & Suchockis, A. (2018). Exploring The Relationship Between Innovative Work Behavior And Leadership: Moderating Effect Of Locus Of Control. *Organizations & Markets in Emerging Economies*, 9(1), 21–40.
- Spence, J. T., & Buckner, C. E. (2000). Instrumental and expressive traits, trait stereotypes, and sexist attitudes: What do they signify? *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 24(1), 44–53.
- Stanford, J. H., Oates, B. R., & Flores, D. (1995). Women's leadership styles: a heuristic analysis. *Women in Management Review*, 10(2), 9–16.
- Stohl, C. (1984). *Quality circles and the quality of communication*. Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association Convention, Chicago, IL.
- Sullivan, J. J. (1988). Three roles of language in motivation theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(1), 104–115.
- Vermeir, P., Blot, S., Degroote, S., Vandijck, D., Mariman, A., Vanacker, T., Vogelaers, D. (2018). Communication satisfaction and job satisfaction among critical care nurses and their impact on burnout and intention to leave: A questionnaire study. *Intensive and Critical Care Nursing*, 48, 21–27.
- Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., & England, G. W. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation*, 22(1), 120–131.
- Willingham, D. T. (2008). Critical thinking: Why is it so hard to teach? *Arts Education Policy Review*, 109(4), 21–32.
- Yu, S., & Ko, Y. (2017). Communication competency as a mediator in the self-leadership to job performance relationship. *Collegian*, 24(5), 421–425.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in Organizations*, 7th edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C., & Bader, P. (2004). Leader traits and attributes. *The Nature of Leadership*, 101, 124–135.